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Citation for final published version:

Li, Kun, Liu, Jingying, Lai, Yukun ORCID: <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-2094-5680> and Yang, Jingyu 2019. Generating 3D faces using multi-column graph convolutional networks. Computer Graphics Forum 38 (7) , pp. 215-224. file

Publishers page: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/cgf.13830>
<<http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/cgf.13830>>

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Generating 3D Faces using Multi-column Graph Convolutional Networks

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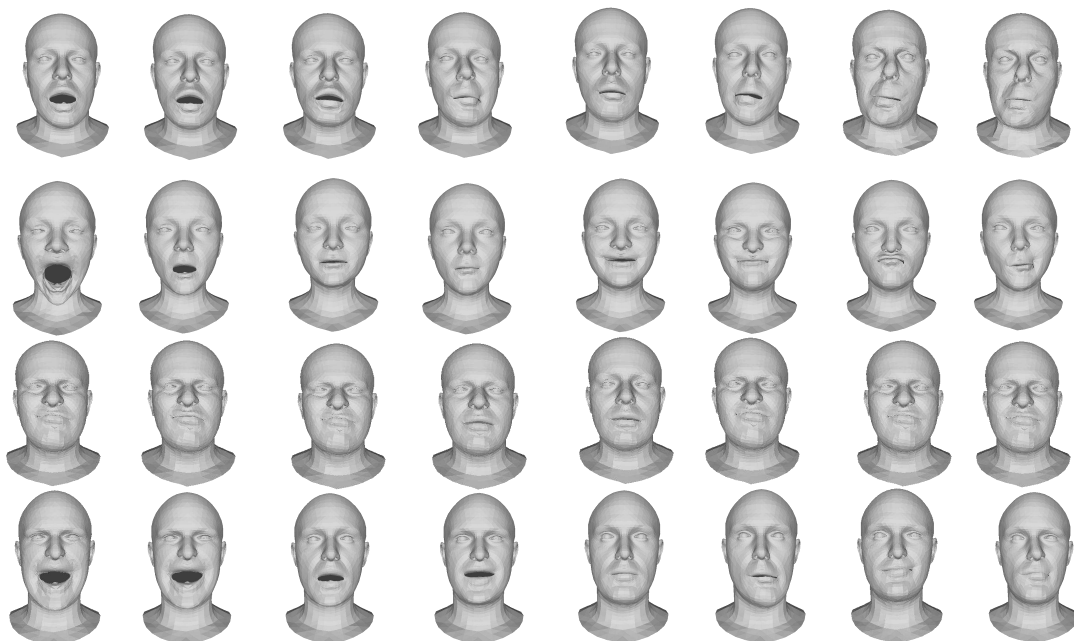


Figure 1: Reconstruction results of our multi-column graph convolutional networks (MGCNs).

Abstract

In this work, we introduce multi-column graph convolutional networks (MGCNs), a deep generative model for 3D mesh surfaces that effectively learns a non-linear facial representation. We perform spectral decomposition of meshes and apply convolutions directly in the frequency domain. Our network architecture involves multiple columns of graph convolutional networks (GCNs), namely large GCN (L-GCN), medium GCN (M-GCN) and small GCN (S-GCN), with different filter sizes to extract features at different scales. L-GCN is more useful to extract large-scale features, whereas S-GCN is effective for extracting subtle and fine-grained features, and M-GCN captures information in between. Therefore, to obtain a high-quality representation, we propose a selective fusion method that adaptively integrates these three kinds of information. Spatially non-local relationships are also exploited through a self-attention mechanism to further improve the representation ability in the latent vector space. Through extensive experiments, we demonstrate the superiority of our end-to-end framework in improving the accuracy of 3D face reconstruction. Moreover, with the help of variational inference, our model has excellent generating ability.

CCS Concepts

• **Computing methodologies** → **Shape representations; Mesh models;**

1. Introduction

Human faces contain rich information, such as individual identity, emotion and intention, and hence occupy a very important position in human visual perception. 3D face reconstruction is helpful to solve poses, expressions and missing features of faces from images, and has a wide range of applications in computer vision and graphics, e.g., face recognition, face animation, and face tracking. However, obtaining a precise 3D face model is challenging because faces are highly variable, especially for non-linear changes due to complex expressions.

3D face models are often acquired by using a 3D scanner, but high-quality 3D scanners are expensive and complicated to operate. Statistical 3D face models, such as the 3DMM (3D Face Morphable Model) parametric model [BV99], provide prior knowledge of 3D faces through statistical analysis. This means a 3D face is represented as a linear combination of 3D face basis vectors obtained by principal component analysis (PCA) on densely arranged 3D faces. However, the representation power of 3DMM-based methods [BV99, BMVS04] is limited not only by the size of the training set, but also by its capability of capturing variations in different facial expressions or poses, which often violate the linear assumption of PCA-based models. In addition, the PCA-based method is essentially a low-pass filter, which fails to restore the details of faces. With the development of deep learning, nonlinear 3D face morphable models show improved representation power. From this perspective, the linear 3DMM representation is equivalent to a single-layer network, whereas the deep network architecture naturally increases the model capacity [TL18].

Previous works mostly tackle 3D face generation tasks in the Euclidean domain, but meshes are naturally in the non-Euclidean domain. Ranjan *et al.* [RBSB18] focused on non-Euclidean data and introduced a versatile model that learns a non-linear representation of 3D faces using spectral convolutions on a mesh surface, but this method cannot effectively capture multi-scale spatial information, resulting in the learned hidden layer vector having limited discrimination and generalization abilities.

In this paper, inspired by the work [CMS12] for image classification, we propose a novel face representation and reconstruction method with multi-column graph convolutional mesh autoencoders, which can achieve higher quality reconstruction. Moreover, we propose a selective fusion module and utilize self-attention mechanism to better fuse features of different scales. This makes convolutions memory efficient and feasible to process high resolution meshes. Experimental results demonstrate that the proposed method provides significant improvement over the state-of-the-art generation methods on a standard dataset. An example of reconstruction results of our network is shown in Figure 1. Our code will be released online.

The main contributions of this paper are summarized as follows:

- **Multi-column graph convolutional networks (MGCNs).** We propose a MGCN architecture to effectively capture information at different scales on meshes, and learn a better latent space representation. The three columns correspond to filters with receptive fields of different sizes (large, medium, small), so that the

features learned by each column graph convolution are adaptive to large variations on face meshes such as eyes, nose and mouth.

- **Selective fusion.** We propose a learnable feature fusion method on the basis of MGCNs. Combining self-attention mechanism makes fusion more intelligent. This method further boosts potential representation of 3D faces in a low-dimensional latent space.
- **Improved generation capabilities.** Experimental results demonstrate that our method achieves much better results in terms of reconstruction errors, compared with the state of the art. Remarkably, we can reduce reconstruction error from 0.845 to 0.390 on interpolation experiments. Simultaneously, our model can be used in a variational setting to sample a diverse range of face meshes from a known Gaussian distribution, as shown in Figure 1.

2. Related Work

2.1. Face Representation

Face modeling is a challenging topic in computer vision and graphics. Most methods use statistical priors to model the structure and expression of faces. However, facial variations are nonlinear in the real world, e.g., the variations in different facial expressions. Existing work can be mainly divided into two categories: PCA-based linear approaches and deep learning based nonlinear approaches.

PCA-based Linear Approaches. The earliest face parameterization model 3D Morphable Model (3DMM) was proposed by Blanz and Vetter [BV99], which is a statistical model of 3D facial shapes and textures. The 3D faces with only neutral expressions were captured in well-controlled conditions and obtained by laser scanning. The widely-used Basel Face Model (BFM) [PKA*09] is also built with 200 subjects in only neutral expressions. Lack of expression can be compensated for using the expression basis from FaceWarehouse [CWZ*13]. There are various variants of 3DMM. Yang *et al.* [GGSC96] used multiple PCA models, each of which corresponds to a kind of expression. Amberg *et al.* [AW92] combined the neutral shape PCA model with the PCA model of expression residuals obtained from neutral shapes. A similar model with an albedo model was proposed in the Face2Face framework [WJV*04]. Tena *et al.* [TDLTM14] presented a linear face modeling approach that better generalizes to unseen data than traditional holistic approaches and also allows click-and-drag interaction for animation. Wu *et al.* [WBG16] combined an anatomical subspace with a local patch-based deformation subspace to realistically model the facial performance of three actors. But their method uses personalized subspaces to capture shape details and therefore is not applicable to arbitrary target subjects.

Nonlinear 3D Face Models. Recently, some work proposed to embed 3D face shapes by nonlinear parametric models with the power of deep learning methods. Conventional 3DMM is learned from a set of well-controlled 2D face images with associated 3D face scans, and represented by two sets of PCA basis functions. Due to the type and amount of training data, as well as the linear bases, the representation power of 3DMM is limited. To address these problems, Tran and Liu [TL18] proposed an innovative framework to learn a nonlinear 3DMM model from a large set of unconstrained face images, without collecting 3D face scans. Feng

et al. [FWS*18] proposed a straightforward method that simultaneously reconstructs the 3D facial structure and provides dense alignment. Tan et al. [TGLX18] represented facial expressions with deep learning, but their method uses fully connected layers, rather than convolutions in the mesh domain.

2.2. Graph Convolution Networks

Recent work about convolution on graphs can be categorized into spectral approaches and non-spectral approaches. Spectral approaches adopt a spectral representation of graphs that relies on the eigen-decomposition of their Laplacian matrices [KW17, DBV16]. The corresponding eigenvectors are regarded as the Fourier basis in the harmonic analysis of spectral graph theory, and then the spectral convolution is defined as the element-wise product of two signals' Fourier transforms on the graph [BZSL14]. However, as spectral approaches are associated with their corresponding Laplacian matrix, a spectral CNN model learned on one graph cannot be directly transferred to a different graph, as it usually has a different Laplacian matrix, and special treatment is required [YSGG17].

Non-spectral approaches aim to define convolutions directly on a graph with local neighbors in a spatial or manifold domain. The key for non-spectral approaches is to define a set of shared weights applied to the neighbors of each vertex [AT16]. Duvenaud et al. [DMAI*15] computed a weight matrix for each vertex and multiplied it to the neighbors, followed by a sum operation. Inductive representation learning on graphs [HYL17] introduced an inductive framework by applying a specific aggregator over the neighbors, such as the max/mean operator or a recurrent neural network (RNN).

However, these graph convolution networks are not directly applicable to 3D meshes. CoMA [RBSB18] used truncated Chebyshev polynomials [DBV16] for mesh convolutions, but it is difficult to capture features of all different scales. To address these problems, in this work, we propose a novel multi-column graph convolutional network (MGCN) inspired by microcolumns of neurons in the cerebral cortex, in which we combine several graph convolutional columns to form a MGCN. Each column involves a graph convolutional neural network with mesh-based down-sampling and up-sampling layers to extract features with receptive fields of different sizes. We also exploit self-attention mechanism to capture non-local relationships. Overall, we obtain a complete mesh autoencoder structure to represent highly complex 3D faces, which outperforms existing state of the art.

3. Methodology

This section describes the framework and the details of our proposed method. Firstly, we define a 3D face representation which uses convolutional layers with graph convolution operators to represent faces (Section 3.1). Then, we elaborate the network architecture and the loss function designed specially for minimizing errors (Section 3.2). Finally, we give variational autoencoder formulation that has generation capabilities (Section 3.3).

3.1. Overview

3D Face Representation. Given a collection of 3D face meshes, we aim to obtain generated faces from the model. We represent a facial surface as a set of vertices \mathcal{V} and edges \mathcal{E} . $|\mathcal{V}| = n$ vertices lie in 3D Euclidean space, so the coordinates of all the vertices form a matrix $\mathbf{V} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times 3}$. The edges are represented using an adjacency matrix $\mathbf{A} \in \{0, 1\}^{n \times n}$ where $a_{ij} = 1$ denotes an edge connection between vertices v_i and v_j , and $a_{ij} = 0$ otherwise. An embedding $\mathcal{M} = (\mathbf{V}, \mathbf{A})$ is realized by assigning 3D coordinates to the vertices \mathcal{V} , which is encoded as an $n \times 3$ matrix \mathbf{V} containing the vertex coordinates as rows. $\mathcal{M} = (\mathbf{V}, \mathbf{A})$ is the input of network, and the network uses an encoder-decoder architecture to generate a new mesh $\mathcal{M}' = (\mathbf{V}', \mathbf{A}')$ which can be expressed as a new sample.

Graph Convolution Networks. In order to deal with this non-Euclidean data, we use graph convolution [DBV16] for feature learning. We first provide some background about this convolution. The Laplacian operator is discretized (using the distance-based equivalent of the cotangent formula [JSH12]) as an $n \times n$ matrix $\mathbf{L} = \mathbf{D} - \mathbf{A}$, where the diagonal matrix \mathbf{D} represents the degree of each vertex in \mathcal{V} as $d_{ii} = \sum_j a_{ij}$. The Laplacian is diagonalized by the Fourier basis $\mathbf{U} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ (since \mathbf{L} is a real symmetric matrix) as $\mathbf{L} = \mathbf{U}\mathbf{\Lambda}\mathbf{U}^T$, where the columns of $\mathbf{U} = [\mathbf{u}_0, \mathbf{u}_1, \dots, \mathbf{u}_{n-1}]$ are the orthogonal eigenvectors of \mathbf{L} , and $\mathbf{\Lambda} = \text{diag}([\lambda_0, \lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_{n-1}]) \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is a diagonal matrix with the associated real, non-negative eigenvalues. The graph Fourier transform [Chu96] of the mesh vertices $\mathbf{V} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times 3}$ is then defined as $\mathbf{V}_\omega = \mathbf{U}^T \mathbf{V}$, and the inverse Fourier transform as $\mathbf{V} = \mathbf{U}\mathbf{V}_\omega$.

Graph convolution is defined in the graph Fourier transform domain, which contains eigenvectors \mathbf{U} of Laplacian matrix \mathbf{L} . The convolution in Fourier space is defined as $\mathbf{x} * \mathbf{y} = \mathbf{U} \left((\mathbf{U}^T \mathbf{x}) \otimes (\mathbf{U}^T \mathbf{y}) \right)$, where \otimes is the element-wise Hadamard product. It follows that a signal \mathbf{x} is filtered by g_θ as $\mathbf{y} = g_\theta(\mathbf{L})\mathbf{x}$. An efficient way to compute the spectral convolution is to parametrize g_θ as a Chebyshev polynomial of order K , given input $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times F_{in}}$:

$$\mathbf{y}_j = \sum_{i=1}^{F_{in}} \sum_{k=0}^{K-1} \theta_{i,j}^k T_k(\tilde{\mathbf{L}}) \mathbf{x}_i, \quad (1)$$

where \mathbf{y}_j is the j -th feature of $\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times F_{out}}$, $\tilde{\mathbf{L}} = 2\mathbf{L}/\lambda_{max} - \mathbf{I}_n$ is a scaled Laplacian matrix. \mathbf{I}_n is the $n \times n$ unit matrix. λ_{max} is the maximum eigenvalue. T_k is the Chebyshev polynomial of order K and can be computed recursively as $T_k(x) = 2xT_{k-1}(x) - T_{k-2}(x)$, $T_0 = 1$ and $T_1 = x$. Each convolution layer has $F_{in} \times F_{out}$ vectors of Chebyshev coefficients, $\theta_{i,j} \in \mathbb{R}^K$, as trainable parameters.

3.2. Multi-column Graph Convolution Networks

The overall structure of our MGCN is illustrated in Figure 2. Our autoencoder consists of an encoder and a decoder. The detailed structures of the encoder and decoder are shown in Table 1 and Table 2, respectively. The encoder contains three parallel GCNs whose filters are with local receptive fields of different sizes. Each parallel GCN consists of 4 Chebyshev convolutional filters with K Chebyshev polynomials. Each of the convolutions is followed by a biased ReLU [GBB11]. The down-sampling layers, similar

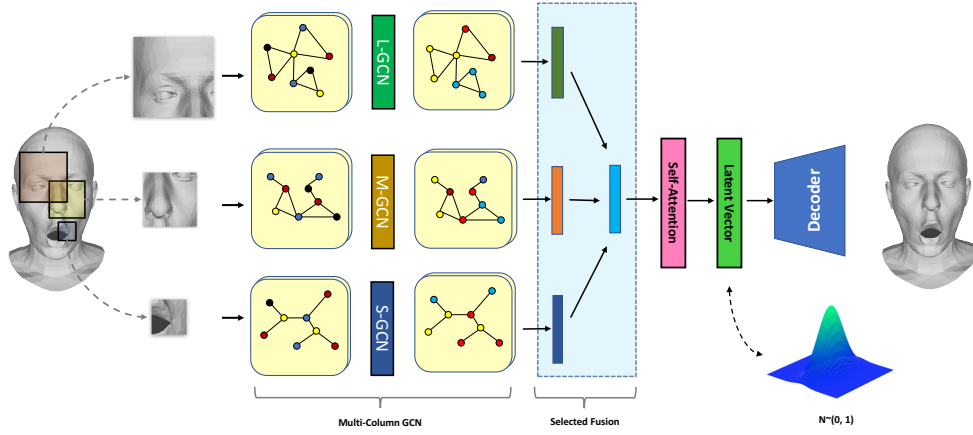


Figure 2: Overview of our pipeline: 1) A multi-column GCN, including L-GCN, M-GCN, and S-GCN, 2) Selective fusion for feature fusion from different column graph convolutions, 3) Self-attention mechanism to explore local features across spatial dimensions to improve the representation ability of deep models, 4) Variational loss with latent vector.

to [RBSB18], are interleaved between convolutional layers. Each down-sampling rate is approximately $1/4$. The encoder transforms the face mesh from $\mathbb{R}^{n \times 3}$ to a 64 dimensional latent vector using a fully connected layer at the end. The decoder is a mirrored structure of the encoder. We concatenate a selective fusion unit after the parallel structure, where the extracted features are selectively blended. Moreover, we explore local features across spatial dimensions to improve the representation ability of deep models through self-attention mechanism.

Multi-column Architecture. Due to the characteristics of 3D graph structure data, sample data usually contains features of different sizes, hence filters with receptive fields of the same size are unlikely to capture characteristics of a graph at different scales. It is more natural to use filters with different sizes of local receptive field to learn the characteristics of graph structure data. Therefore, how to measure the receptive field in graph convolution is the key problem to determine network performance. We rethink the process of graph convolution: different K values represent the range of nodes involved in the convolution process of graphs, and hence can control the convolution range of graphs. The larger the range of graphs is, the larger the scope in the original mesh space is, similar to the size of different receptive fields in 2D convolution by selecting different ranges.

In our MGCN, for each column, we use the filters of different sizes to extract features of different scales. For instance, filters with larger receptive fields (*i.e.*, larger K) are more useful for extracting large-scale features, while filters with smaller receptive fields are more useful for extracting subtle and fine features. We divide the multi-column structure into three types: large graph convolution network (L-GCN), medium graph convolution network (M-GCN), and small graph convolution network (S-GCN), which are sufficient in practice, although more or fewer columns may also be used. This approach can also be seen as multi-scale decomposition. We further propose a selective fusion method to integrate them.

Selective Fusion. After multi-scale convolution, we can obtain three feature maps for the input, denoted as \mathbf{Z}_{GCN_i} ($i = 1, 2, 3$ for L-

GCN, M-GCN and S-GCN, respectively) containing feature information of different scales. How to integrate them effectively is the key to improve the performance of the whole network. The simplest way is to directly concatenate them, but the contribution of feature information to the whole is not equal at each scale. Therefore, we propose a selective fusion method to automatically learn fusion parameters. We multiply each feature map by a learnable parameter w_i and constrain their sum to one:

$$\mathbf{Z} = \sum_{i=1}^3 w_i \mathbf{Z}_{GCN_i}, \quad \text{s.t.} \quad \sum_{i=1}^3 w_i = 1, \quad (2)$$

where w_i is the learnable parameter corresponding to the weight of the i -th column, and \mathbf{Z}_{GCN_i} is the feature map for the column. w_i can be seen as the importance of features at different scales. These weights are optimized during training, which determine the importance of different scales to help generate better latent vectors.

Self-Attention. Discriminant feature representations are essential for feature embedding, which could be obtained by capturing long-range contextual information. The C -dimensional latent vector \mathbf{Z} can be viewed as a feature map of size $C \times 1$. The attention module encodes a wider range of contextual information into local features, and thus enhances their representation capability. Following the self-attention operation in Figure 3, we use a generic module in deep neural network as:

$$\mathbf{O}_i = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{\forall j} h(\mathbf{A}_i, \mathbf{B}_j) t(\mathbf{Z}_j) + \mathbf{Z}_i, \quad (3)$$

where N is a normalization term (defined later), \mathbf{Z} is the local feature map from the embedding module and $\mathbf{O} \in \mathbb{R}^{C \times 1}$ is the output with the same size as \mathbf{Z} . We generate two new feature maps \mathbf{A} and \mathbf{B} from \mathbf{Z} by different 1×1 convolutions, where $\{\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{B}\} \in \mathbb{R}^{C \times 1}$. \mathbf{A}_i and \mathbf{B}_j are local features at different positions. Define h as a function to compute a score which represents pairwise relationship. We use a Gaussian function with softmax for the pairwise function h [WGGH18]:

$$h(\mathbf{A}_i, \mathbf{B}_j) = \exp(\mathbf{A}_i \cdot \mathbf{B}_j). \quad (4)$$

After that we can get the attention map $h(\mathbf{A}_i, \mathbf{B}_j) \in \mathbb{R}^{C \times C}$. The function t in Eq. (3) is a scale function implemented by a 1×1 operator, and hence $t(\mathbf{Z}_j)$ computes a representation of input \mathbf{Z} at the position j . Then we perform a matrix multiplication between the attention map and $t(\mathbf{Z}_j)$, and the result belongs to $\mathbb{R}^{C \times 1}$. It can be inferred that the resulting feature at each position is a weighted sum of the features at all positions and original features. The normalization term N in equation 5 is defined as

$$N = \sum_{\forall j} h(\mathbf{A}_i, \mathbf{B}_j). \quad (5)$$

We also add residual connection [HZRS16] for the self-attention block to make it more efficient. This block learns to efficiently find global, long-range dependencies within internal representations of feature maps. Through self-attention, we can better explore latent vector generative capabilities on the basis of MGCNs.

Table 1: Encoder Architecture.

Layer	Input size	Output size
Convolution	5023×3	5023×16
Down-Sampling	5023×16	1256×16
Convolution	1256×16	1256×16
Down-Sampling	1256×16	314×16
Convolution	314×16	314×16
Down-Sampling	314×16	79×16
Convolution	79×16	79×32
Down-Sampling	79×32	20×32
Fully Connected	20×32	64

Table 2: Decoder Architecture.

Layer	Input size	Output size
Fully Connected	64	20×32
Up-Sampling	20×32	79×32
Convolution	79×32	79×32
Up-Sampling	79×32	314×32
Convolution	314×32	314×16
Up-Sampling	314×16	1256×16
Convolution	1256×16	1256×16
Up-Sampling	1256×16	5023×16
Convolution	5023×16	5023×3

Loss Function. In our multi-column graph convolutional network, we use the per-vertex Euclidean distance between the predicted mesh and the ground-truth mesh to represent the reconstruction error because we find that better convergence can be obtained with this loss in our problem. It is defined as

$$l = \|\mathcal{M} - D(\mathbf{Z})\|_2. \quad (6)$$

where \mathcal{M} is the original mesh, $D(\cdot)$ is the decoder, and \mathbf{Z} is the latent representation of face mesh \mathcal{M} . The goal of our loss function is to make the reconstructed shape as close as possible to the input. The loss function is optimized via batch-based stochastic gradient descent and back-propagation, typically for training neural networks.

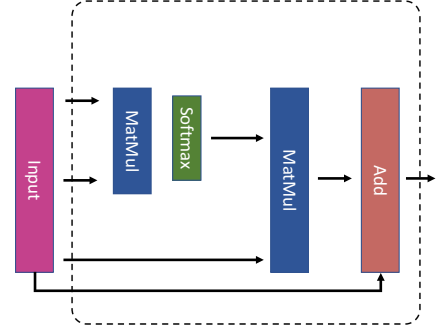


Figure 3: Self-attention mechanism

3.3. Variational Mesh Autoencoder

Generative models have made great progress in recent years. The variational auto-encoder (VAE) is a recently introduced latent variable generative model, which combines variational inference with deep learning. However VAEs are mostly applied directly to 2D images. Traditional methods [HKM15] use probabilistic inference for 3D model generation (synthesis), but they are only suitable for specific 3D shapes. Our model not only has excellent reconstruction results but also has the ability to generate new shapes. Different from previous generative models, our model uses a MGCN with self-attention mechanism to better model high resolution details.

We draw on the ideas of VAE. VAE modifies the conventional auto-encoder framework in two key ways. First, a deterministic internal representation \mathbf{Z} (provided by the encoder) of an input \mathbf{X} is replaced with a posterior distribution $q(\mathbf{Z}|\mathbf{X})$. Inputs are then reconstructed by sampling \mathbf{Z} from this posterior and passing them through a decoder. To make sampling easy, the posterior distribution is usually parametrized by a Gaussian with its mean and variance predicted by the encoder. Second, to ensure that the model can sample from any point of the latent space and still generate valid and diverse outputs, the posterior $q(\mathbf{Z}|\mathbf{X})$ is regularized with its KL divergence from a prior distribution $p(\mathbf{Z})$.

Although 3D faces can be sampled from our convolutional mesh autoencoder, the distribution of the latent space is not known. Therefore, sampling requires a mesh to be encoded in that space. In order to constrain the distribution to normal distribution of the latent space, we add a variational loss to our model. So we minimize the loss:

$$l = \|\mathcal{M} - D(\mathbf{Z})\|_2 + w_{kl} KL(\mathcal{N}(0, 1) \| q(\mathbf{Z}|\mathcal{M})), \quad (7)$$

where \mathbf{Z} is the latent representation of face \mathcal{M} , and $w_{kl} = 0.001$ is the weight of the KL divergence loss. The first term minimizes the ℓ_2 reconstruction error, and the second term enforces a unit Gaussian prior $\mathcal{N}(0, 1)$ with zero mean on the distribution of latent vectors $q(\mathbf{Z})$. This enforces the latent space to be a multivariate Gaussian.

4. Experimental Results

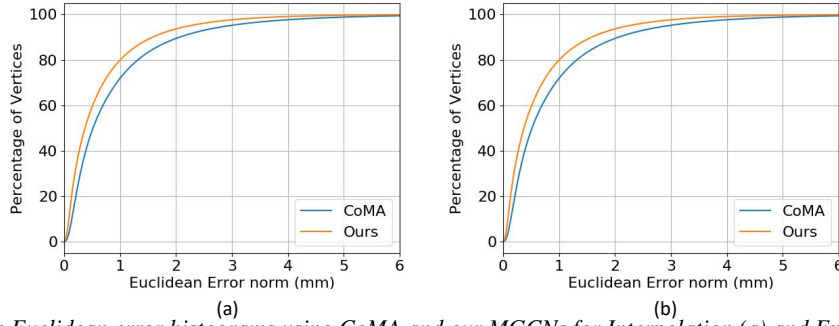
In this section, we first evaluate the performance of our MGCNs in Section 4.1 which is compared with state-of-the-art methods, and

Table 3: Interpolation comparison. Errors are in millimeters.

	Ours	CoMA [RBSB18]	PCA
Mean Error	0.390 ± 0.358	0.845 ± 0.994	1.639 ± 1.638
Median Error	0.383	0.496	1.101

Table 4: Extrapolation comparison. Errors are in millimeters.

Sequence	Ours		CoMA [RBSB18]		PCA		FLAME [LBB*17a]	
	Mean Error	Median Error	Mean Error	Median Error	Mean Error	Median Error	Mean Error	Median Error
bareteeth	1.080 ± 1.241	0.638	1.376 ± 1.536	0.856	1.954 ± 1.888	1.335	2.002 ± 1.456	1.606
cheeks in	0.866 ± 1.031	0.514	1.288 ± 1.501	0.794	1.854 ± 1.906	1.179	2.011 ± 1.468	1.609
eyebrow	0.802 ± 0.837	0.506	1.053 ± 1.088	0.706	1.609 ± 1.535	1.090	1.862 ± 1.342	1.561
high smile	1.055 ± 1.235	0.634	1.205 ± 1.252	0.772	1.841 ± 1.831	1.246	1.960 ± 1.370	1.625
lips back	0.841 ± 1.004	0.484	1.193 ± 1.476	0.708	1.842 ± 1.947	1.198	2.047 ± 1.485	1.639
lips up	0.829 ± 0.962	0.479	1.081 ± 1.192	0.656	1.788 ± 1.764	1.216	1.983 ± 1.427	1.616
mouth down	0.870 ± 0.977	0.539	1.050 ± 1.183	0.654	1.618 ± 1.594	1.105	2.029 ± 1.454	1.651
mouth extreme	1.165 ± 1.461	0.686	1.336 ± 1.820	0.738	2.011 ± 2.405	1.224	2.028 ± 1.464	1.613
mouth middle	0.847 ± 0.984	0.497	1.017 ± 1.192	0.610	1.697 ± 1.715	1.133	1.043 ± 1.496	1.620
mouth open	0.778 ± 0.967	0.453	0.961 ± 1.127	0.583	1.612 ± 1.728	1.060	1.894 ± 1.422	1.544
mouth side	1.008 ± 1.342	0.567	1.264 ± 1.611	0.730	1.894 ± 2.274	1.132	2.090 ± 1.510	1.695
mouth up	0.836 ± 0.931	0.500	1.097 ± 1.212	0.683	1.710 ± 1.680	1.159	2.067 ± 1.485	1.680

**Figure 4:** Cumulative Euclidean error histograms using CoMA and our MGCNs for Interpolation (a) and Extrapolation (b) experiments.

then perform an ablation study to analyze the effect of different components of our approach and the sensitivity of parameters in Section 4.2. Finally, we show a diverse range of face meshes sampled from the latent space to verify the generation ability of our network in Section 4.3.

Dataset. We use the CoMA dataset [RBSB18] to perform various ablation and comparison experiments. This dataset contains 20,466 3D meshes, each of which has about 120,000 vertices, and captures 3D sequences of 12 subjects of different age groups, each of whom performs 12 different expressions. These expressions are chosen such that they are extreme, causing a lot of facial tissue deformation. These expressions are not only complex, but also asymmetric, so the task of reconstruction is a challenge. Moreover, none of these expressions are correlated with each other. The expression sequences in our dataset are *bareteeth*, *cheeks in*, *eyebrow*, *high smile*, *lips back*, *lips up*, *mouth down*, *mouth extreme*, *mouth middle*, *mouth open*, *mouth side* and *mouth up*. The data is pre-processed using a sequential mesh registration method [LBB*17b] to reduce the dimensionality to 5023 vertices.

Implementation Details. We utilize the deep learning frame-

work *Keras with Tensorflow* [ABC*16] backend to implement MGCNs and use NVIDIA GeForce GTX 1080 Ti GPU to complete all experiments. We train our method for 400 epochs with a learning rate of $1e-4$ and a learning rate decay of 0.99 every epoch. We use stochastic gradient descent (SGD) with a momentum of 0.9, which optimizes the loss function between the output mesh and the ground-truth mesh. We use ℓ_2 regularization on the weights of the network with weight decay of $5e-4$. For network architecture, we set latent dimension as 64, and S-GCN, M-GCN and L-GCN use Chebyshev filtering with $K = 2, 6, 10$, respectively. We have four graph convolution layers for each column, and the number of channels corresponding to them are 16, 32, 64, 64, respectively. Each convolution is followed by a batch normalization [IS15] and ReLU [NH10] activation function.

Evaluation Metrics. To evaluate the performance of the proposed method, we adopt two mainstream evaluation metrics: Euclidean distance mean error with standard deviation, and median error. The mean error in term of Euclidean distance e between re-

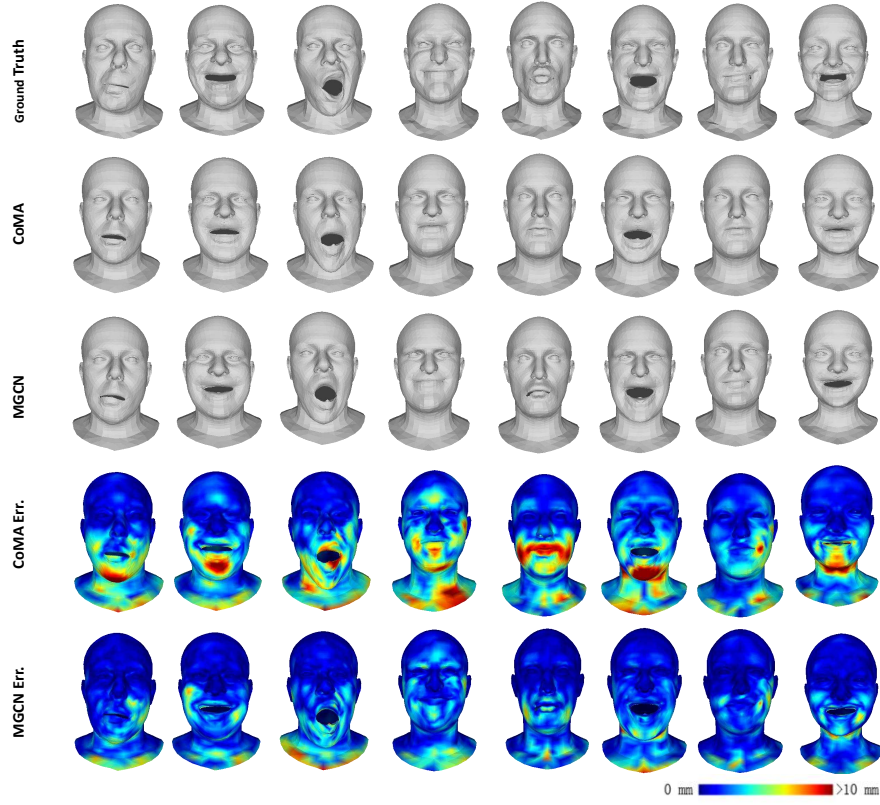


Figure 5: Qualitative results for the interpolation experiment.

constructed mesh \mathcal{M}' and original mesh \mathcal{M} is defined as:

$$e(\mathcal{M}, \mathcal{M}') = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \|\mathbf{v}_i - \mathbf{v}'_i\|_2. \quad (8)$$

The median error is defined as the median value of Euclidean errors of all vertices.

4.1. Comparison

Interpolation Experiment. In order to evaluate the face reconstruction capability of the proposed method, we compare our method with CoMA [RBSB18] that introduces a convolutional mesh autoencoder consisting of mesh downsampling and mesh up-sampling layers with fast localized convolutional filters defined on the mesh surface, as well as baseline PCA method. We evaluate the compared methods using the corresponding released code and parameters to ensure their performance. Moreover, we divide the full dataset into a training set and a test set with a ratio of 9:1. The mean error and standard deviation for per-vertex Euclidean distance on the test set are given in Table 3. We observe that the error value of our reconstruction result is 53.8% lower than CoMA. Figure 4a is the cumulative Euclidean error histogram, showing the proportion of vertices (y-axis) within given error bounds (x-axis). For a 1 mm accuracy bound, our MGCN captures 81.1% of the vertices while the CoMA model [RBSB18] only captures 72.3%. Visual inspection of the qualitative results in Figure 5 shows that our reconstructed meshes are more realistic and reasonable.

Extrapolation Experiment. In order to measure the generalization ability of the model, in addition to CoMA, we further compare the proposed method with two competitive models: PCA [BV99] and FLAME [LBB*17a] in Table 4. For comparison, we train the expression model of FLAME on the CoMA dataset [RBSB18]. The FLAME reconstructions are obtained with latent vector size of 64. The latent vectors encoded using the PCA model and our mesh autoencoder are also of size 64, for fair comparison. We compare the performance using the mean, standard deviation, and median of Euclidean distance errors. We perform 12 fold cross validation, one for each expression. For each experiment, we split the CoMA dataset [RBSB18] according to a certain expression. The dataset is then divided into unseen data (faces of the selected expression) and seen data (faces of remaining expressions). As shown in Table 4, our model performs better than the state-of-the-art methods on all expression sequences. Figure 6 shows visual inspection of the qualitative results. The cumulative Euclidean error histogram is shown in Figure 4b. For a 1 mm accuracy bound, our MGCN captures 75.8% of the vertices, which is better than 61.2% of the CoMA method.

4.2. Ablation Study

We study the effect of each component which may affect experimental results in our approach on the CoMA dataset [RBSB18]. All the results are obtained over the input size of 5023×3 .

Table 5: The performances of different variants of our method. w/ means with.

Method	Mean Error	Std
Single-Column	0.875	0.613
Single-Column w/ attention	0.673	0.669
Multi-Column	0.571	0.632
Multi-Column w/ attention	0.523	0.523
Multi-Column w/ fusion	0.372	0.477
Multi-Column w/ attention + fusion	0.297	0.348

Component Module Analysis. In this section, we perform an ablation study to analyze the effect of different components of our approach. In our method, we have three novel designs including multi-column graph convolution, selective fusion and self-attention, which greatly improve the representation ability of our method. To investigate the effectiveness of these three designs, Table 5 presents the performances of different variants of our learning method. From Table 5, it can be observed that multi-column graph convolution structure is consistently better than single-column graph convolution structure. Self-attention plays a role in both structures to improve the network’s performance, which attributes to its ability to extract non-local relations in the latent vector. This kind of non-local relation is essential in generating tasks to obtain more detailed results. It should be emphasized that the selective fusion component improves the network greatly in the multi-column structure, reducing error by nearly 0.2, which proves that our proposed fusion method is very effective. Overall, the combination of multi-column graph convolution structure, selective fusion and self-attention achieves satisfactory results in 3D face generating tasks.

To explore how different scales of convolution affect network performance, we decode each column separately. As shown in Table 6, we decode feature maps of different convolution kernel sizes, including 2, 4, 6, 8, 10, 12, respectively. It can be seen that convolution kernels which are either too large or too small do not work well. Although moderate sized convolution kernels show good performance, there is still a big gap with the result of multi-column convolution (shown in Table 5).

We further compare multi-column GCNs with different numbers of layers in Table 7 to study how the network complexity affects the performance. We can see that, the 4-layer architecture we used achieves the best performance. The network may not have enough learning capability if the number of layers is too small, and over-fitting becomes an issue when the number of layers is too large, leading to worse performance on the test set.

Sensitivity Analysis. In particular, for multi-column structure, we further verify whether different K choices have an impact on the robustness of the network through sensitivity analysis of parameters. Then, we select the best K for all our experiments. From Table 8, we can find that various filter parameters for the multi-column structure are consistently better than the single-column version (shown in Table 5). And the optimal parameters are 2, 6, 10. It is observed that if the difference between K values of each column is too large or too small, it will not produce the best performance.

We believe that the appropriate K values should be in line with the relative stability and increment (from S-GCN to L-GCN), so that the network can capture information of different scales to achieve the best performance. For the case of same values for K_1 , K_2 , and K_3 , the improvement of the network is not significant, because each column captures information of the same scale.

Table 6: The performances of single column with different filter size K .

K	2	4	6	8	10	12
Mean Error	1.070	0.988	0.900	0.947	0.875	0.993
Std	0.528	0.669	0.441	0.794	0.613	0.284

Table 7: The performances of proposed multi-column GCN with different network depths.

Depth	2	3	4	5	6
Mean Error	0.544	0.319	0.297	0.439	0.542
Std	0.297	0.512	0.348	0.231	0.406

Table 8: Sensitivity analysis for different filter size K .

(K_1, K_2, K_3)	Mean Error	Std
(1, 2, 3)	0.309	0.371
(2, 4, 6)	0.302	0.366
(2, 8, 14)	0.300	0.361
(6, 6, 6)	0.632	0.685
(2, 6, 10)	0.297	0.348

4.3. Sampling the Latent Space

To verify the generating ability of MGCNs when combined with variational loss, we can control the size of the elements in the hidden vector, so that the decoder has the ability of generation and generates more discriminant samples. Figure 7 demonstrates the diversity of face meshes sampled from the latent space. Let E be the encoder and D be the decoder. We first encode a face mesh from our test set in the latent space to obtain a feature vector $\mathbf{Z} = E(\mathcal{F})$. Then, we vary each component of the latent vector as $\tilde{\mathbf{Z}}_i = \mathbf{Z}_i + \epsilon$. Finally, we use the decoder to transform the latent vector into a reconstructed mesh $\tilde{\mathcal{F}} = D(\tilde{\mathbf{Z}})$. Here, we extend or contract the latent vector along different dimensions by a factor of 0.3, i.e., $\tilde{\mathbf{Z}}_i = (1 + 0.3j)\mathbf{Z}_i$, where $j \in [-4, 4]$ is the step, and the mean face \mathcal{F}_0 is shown in the middle of each row.

5. Conclusions

In this paper, we propose multi-column graph convolution networks (MGCNs) for 3D face representation, reconstruction and generation. A MGCN contains three different kinds of convolutions, i.e., large graph convolution network (L-GCN), middle graph convolution network (M-GCN), and small graph convolution network (S-GCN) to capture different scales of features. Moreover, we propose a selective fusion module and utilize self-attention mechanism to

better integrate features of different scales. The interpolation and extrapolation experiments demonstrate that the proposed method is more robust and provides significant improvement over the state-of-the-art methods on a standard dataset. Our current approach restricts fusion at the feature vector level. We will investigate more detailed selective fusion where each feature dimension has its own weights in the future. Since our method does not explicitly use face-specific domain knowledge, our method is not restricted to 3D faces. In the future, we will extend the proposed method to the 3D human body generation task.

Acknowledgements

This work was supported in part by the National Natural Science Foundation of China (Grant 61571322 and 61771339), and Tianjin Research Program of Application Foundation and Advanced Technology under Grant 18JCYBJC19200.

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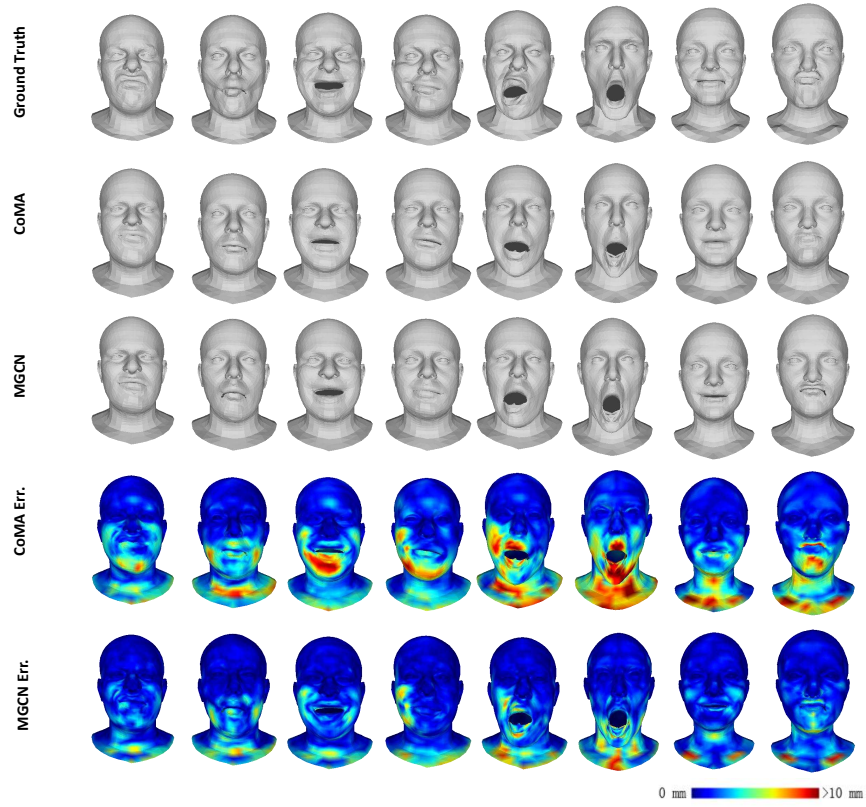


Figure 6: Qualitative results for the extrapolation experiment.

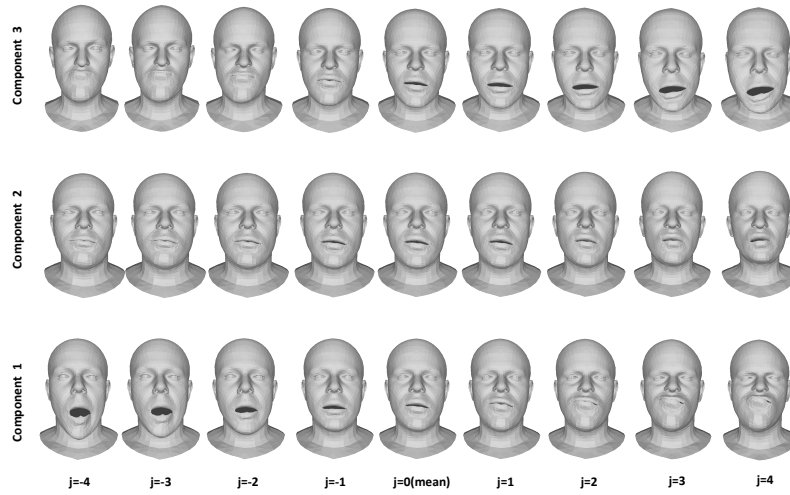


Figure 7: Sampling from the latent space of the mesh autoencoder around the mean face $j = 0$ along 3 different components.